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PROCEEDINGS OF THE CLASSICAL CONFERENCE
HELD AT ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN,
MARCH 27 AND 28, 1895*

The aim of this Conference, as announced in the circular of invitation, was twofold: first, to give to those doing work in Latin, Greek, and Ancient History an opportunity to present the results of research; and, secondly, to offer an opportunity for the discussion of questions of fundamental importance to the interests of classical scholarship, particularly in the Central and Western States. The Conference met under the auspices of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, following in general the plan outlined in a paper read before the Club at the March meeting of 1894†. The preparations for the Conference were left to a "Committee of Arrangements," of which Principal J. G. Pattengill, of the Ann Arbor High School, was appointed Chairman.

The meetings were held in the auditorium of Newberry Hall, the building of the Students' Christian Association, which stands facing the main entrance of the University grounds; the offices and lower rooms were available for the use of committees. One room was devoted exclusively to the display of maps, charts, views, and models exhibited by the Committee on Illustrative Material; in another, shelf-room was provided for all the books recommended by the Committee on High School Classical Library, so that they could easily be examined. The attendance began with one hundred and fifty at the opening Wednesday morning, and increased rapidly, reaching about four hundred at the later sessions. The following States were represented: Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Iowa. College and University men were present in large numbers, but the major-

* Besides the reports of the meetings that were given in the *Detroit* and *Chicago* papers for March 28 and 29, brief accounts of the Conference appeared in the *New York Evening Post* for Apr. 2, the *New York Tribune* for Apr. 3, the *New York Critic* for Apr. 6, the *Chicago Dial* for Apr. 16, the *Michigan School Moderator* for May 16, the *Educational Review* for May and the *Book Reviews* for May.

† See the *School Review* for June, 1894, p. 376; also, the *Educational Review* for June, 1894, pp. 39-41.

ity of those in attendance were teachers of the classics in high schools and academies. Several principals and superintendents of schools also took active part in the proceedings.

There were three sessions each day. Mornings and afternoons were given up to the reading of papers, which were limited in length to twenty minutes; the subjects presented were partly of scientific interest, partly of pedagogical bearing. At the evening sessions several of the questions affecting the general progress of classical studies were treated in addresses. In the following summary of the "Proceedings" unfortunately it is possible to give only brief abstracts of the papers, on account of the limitations of space. The reports of the committees on the High School Classical Library and on Illustrative Material are placed together at the end of the "Proceedings"; the List of Books recommended, which is too long to be incorporated in the "Proceedings", is issued separately.

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 27

MORNING SESSION

The Conference was called to order at 9:30 by Principal William H. Butts, of the Michigan Military Academy, President of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, who spoke as follows:

"In these days of intense educational activity, conferences of experts in all departments of study furnish the most approved methods of stimulating progress. The correlation of studies and the enriching of the content of all subjects in the curriculum, demand the best thoughts of the best thinkers. Young giants are battering down all the useless strongholds of former ages. No subject can hold its position in college or school merely because it has been considered of great value in the past. The so-called dead languages must show that they are intensely alive, and must plead their cause in the court of enlightened public opinion. More enthusiasm and better preparation are demanded of the classical teachers, in order that Greek and Latin may retain the pre-eminence which they have enjoyed for ages, as the basis of a liberal education. This Classical Conference aims to stimulate teachers, create a more sympathetic relation between colleges and schools, and show how the classical languages may be made to contribute most to the broadest and noblest culture of school life. It is the policy of this Club to treat all depart-

ments alike, and to stand for the highest scholarship and best methods of instruction in science, history, mathematics, and modern languages, as well as in the classics. Each will, in turn, receive the generous consideration of the Club and contribute its full share to the advancement of standards in American education."

Principal Butts called to the chair Professor Sidney G. Ashmore, of Union College, as the presiding officer of the session.

He introduced President Angell, of the University of Michigan, who welcomed the members of the Conference in the name of the University.

"Members of the Classical Conference :

"I am called to the pleasant duty of extending to you, in behalf of the University Senate, a most hearty welcome to our halls. We believe that you will find here a spirit most congenial to your own. Though there has always been a most catholic treatment here of all branches of study, there has always existed in the University a profound interest in classical learning, and that interest has had a marked influence in the whole Northwest. More than forty years ago the University had the signal good fortune to secure for the chair of Greek, Professor James R. Boise, and for its chair of Latin, Professor Henry S. Frieze. Those accomplished scholars, under both of whom I sat as a pupil in my boyhood, were very different from each other. The former was acute, precise, exact, possessed of what we might call a philological instinct. We boys used to say, that he would die, if necessary, for an enclitic. But he was by no means lacking in breadth of view. Dr. Frieze, though accurate in scholarship, was of aesthetic and artistic temperament. He was a distinguished musician. It was not the force and majesty of the Latin tongue,—though this was thoroughly appreciated by him,—so much as the power and enduring influence of the Roman literature and the Roman life, which chiefly interested him. He loved to emphasize the word, Roman, rather than the word, Latin. These two men coming here in the plastic years of the life of the University, awakened an enthusiasm for classical study, which under their worthy successors in the classical chairs has continued unabated to this day. So strong has been the hold of the classical course on the students, that the tendency to pass from other courses to that has always been much more marked than the tendency to leave it. I may, if our distinguished Professor of Greek will allow me, say that he entered college as a student in the Civil Engineering Course, but in the classical atmosphere here soon found that he was called to study Greek.

"We feel ourselves highly honored by the presence of so many of you. We gladly place at your disposal our halls, our library, our homes, whatever we have. We trust that though it is March out-of-doors, you will find it June in your meetings and in our homes."

President Angell was followed by Professor F. W. Kelsey,

of the University of Michigan, who spoke on the "Purpose and Scope of the Classical Conference."

"The problems that are now pressing upon the attention of the American classical teacher are more numerous and more perplexing than those of any previous period.

"For many years the right of the classics to a place in earlier education was more or less contested. As the old curriculums were called upon to make room for the natural sciences and the modern languages, the question was raised whether these might not be substituted for Greek and Latin to advantage. Such questioning with reference to studies is always proper. The world moves. New epochs bring new conditions, new needs. In the processes of education, neither time nor effort should be wasted. Every stroke should tell. The claims of the classics should not rest upon either tradition or prescription. If Latin and Greek are not better educational instruments than anything that can take their place, if there can be found subjects the pursuit of which in the same time under like conditions will produce better results in the training of our youth, away with the classics! Banish from our schools Virgil and Cicero, Xenophon and Homer.

"Thus far, we may freely say, no substitute has been found. The men who to-day are doing the most to extend the study of Latin are the members of faculties in scientific and professional schools, who by encouragement and direct requirement are causing students to pursue this subject in preparation for their work. For Greek the case is not yet so clearly settled. But in both America and England there is a marked revival of interest in Greek art and Greek philosophy, which must inevitably stimulate Greek studies.

"But, if the ancient languages are to abide with us, when shall the study of them be commenced? How long pursued? The tendency of educational opinion at present is against smattering; it prefers fewer subjects of study, with such allotment of time and energy to each as shall secure the best possible results. Shall we defer the study of the languages to a period when the sciences and intermediate mathematics are demanding the student's time? Or shall we commence earlier in the life of the boy and the girl, when vocabularies are so easily mastered, and language-study may so successfully be conducted by the more gradual processes?

"It is apparent that in educational movements the initiative must be taken by those charged with the work of education. Who will show us the path if we do not search it out ourselves? Further, the study of Latin and Greek is so closely interwoven with the rest of our educational system, that it cannot be dealt with separately. The considerations to be advanced in discussing its function and place in secondary education do not merely concern its relations in one field; they reach backward to the primary school and forward to the university. They must be treated not within the narrow limits of a specialty, but on the broad foundation of pedagogical principles.

"We teachers of the classics in the central and western States have been working too much in isolation. We need to meet together sometimes, to catch that professional inspiration which comes from the contact of minds

interested in the same field of activity. In a profession whose materials are those of learning, we should be doing our share to promote scholarship. We should meet together not only that by interchange of views we may forward the solution of the question confronting us, but also that we may gather new acquisitions in our specialty; thus at the same time we may ourselves gain and may furnish to others an incentive to think more deeply, investigate more thoroughly, and teach more effectively."

The reading of formal papers then commenced:

I. "The Origin of Mythology,"* by Professor C. E. Dixon, of Olivet College.

The controversy over the origin of myths has raged since the days of early Greece.

The *historical* theory fails to account for the striking agreement among myths of various peoples. The *Biblical* theory assumes what cannot be proved—that the whole race has had opportunity to inherit a very early revelation from heaven, or to borrow this revelation or the doctrines of the Hebrew religion and the facts of Hebrew history. The *allegorical* theory is discredited by its own advocates, who differ so frequently and so widely as to how each myth should be interpreted. The *philological* theory hinted at by Socrates, but fully developed by Müller and others, is a favorite one to-day. It is based on scientific researches in comparative philology. Its claim is that ancient classical mythology arose from the misunderstanding by later generations of the language of their ancestors, whose imaginative and poetical way of describing natural phenomena proved misleading to the more prosaic intellect of later times. The theory is weakened by the disagreement of Sanscrit scholars touching the etymology of many names of deities—a damaging disagreement, since etymology is the chief factor in evidence for the system. Also the theory is too narrow, as it can explain the mythologies of only Aryan nations or those that have borrowed from them.

A theory more capable of demonstration than any mentioned, and one which is wide enough to take in all mythologies, is that which Eusebius conceived, and which such men as Mr. Tylor and Mr. Lang have done so much to verify—the *anthropological*. It is based on recent discoveries among barbaric tribes of beliefs and legends similar in spirit, and often in detail, to those of ancient mythology. These beliefs and legends explain the origin of the world and of man, the phenomena of nature, facts of life and experience. They are rude and preposterous, yet honest, attempts on the part of untutored man to connect effect with cause. A study of animism, totemism, and magic, as they obtain among savages to-day, deepens the conviction that their mythologies are the natural product of the savage intellect—not of any misunderstanding of language. Such was in all probability the case with the ancient mythologies.

* Published in full in *The Graduates' Magazine* for May.

Remarks were made by Professor H. W. Magoun, of Oberlin College.

2. "Some Aspects of the Worship of Augustus," by Mr. W. D. Baker, of the Battle Creek High School.

The purpose of the paper was to give a brief account of the worship of Augustus as conducted by the provincial *concilia* in Germany and in the Gallic provinces of the Roman Empire.

The provincial *concilia* were a part of the imperial system which Julius and Augustus Caesar brought into existence. They took a hand in the management of the general affairs of the province, might serve as a means for bringing the mismanagement of officials to the notice of the central government at Rome, and were of especial importance as conducting the worship of the reigning Emperor.

The system originated in the East in the cities of Pergamum and Nicomedia. From there the custom spread to all parts of the Empire. At first, and during the lifetime of Augustus, the goddess Roma is joined with Augustus as a recipient of divine honor. This was doubtless an intermediate step toward the final deification of the latter. The authorized public worship of Augustus does not begin until after his death.

In the West the institution began its existence at Lugdunum, the centre of commerce and civilization for the "three Gauls." Here in 12 B. C. an altar was dedicated to Roma and Augustus, and at the same time the *concilium* began its existence. The latter was made up of representatives from the sixty odd cantons. Each year a priest was elected, either by these representatives or the people at large, whose duty it was to present the sacrifice and conduct the festival connected therewith. This priesthood, with its privileges and duties, bears some resemblance to that of the Flamen Dialis.

In Germany the cult appears never to have gained firm foothold; but it seems to have been introduced in the same way. An altar and a priest are mentioned for the year 9 A. D. and the altar again in 15 A. D.

The cult appears in its full development in Gallia Narbonensis. About the date of the introduction there is some uncertainty. According to the common view as supported by C. I. L. XII. 6038, the worship was introduced during the lifetime of Augustus. But M. Krascheninnikoff (*Philologus*, Vol. LIII. No. 1) seems to have shown that the inscription cited belongs to a later reign than that of Augustus, probably to that of Vespasian, and that the introduction of the cult into Narbonnese Gaul took place at the same time.

3. "The Roman Law of Adoption,"* by Mr. E. A. Bechtel, of the Northwestern University.

The Roman law of adoption, as contrasted with the modern treatment of the subject, gives strong emphasis to the ancient view of the family. This

*This paper will be published in full in the June number of the *Northwestern Law Review*.

was based upon two fundamental principles; first the theory of common descent, and the second, the direct outcome of this, the duty of sharing in and perpetuating the common family worship. In spite of all precautions to prevent the extinction of the family line, the assumption of common descent could never be altogether founded upon fact; hence the necessity of adoption as a legal fiction to conceal the necessary adulteration of the family. Such was the origin of adoption, not only among the Romans, but among the other Aryan peoples as well. Adoption is defined as "a legal act whereby under public authority, a person is adopted as a child or grandchild who has not previously been under the paternal power of the adopter, or who has ceased to be."

Adoption as thus employed is a generic term for affiliation, and consists of two forms: *adoption*, when one *alieni iuris* is transferred to the *potestas* of another; *adrogatio*, where one *sui iuris* surrenders his *potestas* and becomes a subordinate member of another family. The latter was probably the older, and certainly the more important. The form of its ratification before the *comitia curiata* is given on the authority of Aulus Gellius. The procedure in *adoption* is a development from the law of the Twelve Tables, forbidding more than three sales of a son. For this, the presence of the *praetor* alone was necessary.

Many limitations of both forms are mentioned, depending for the most part upon the principle "Adoptio naturam imitatur."

The subject of testamentary adoption is of interest from the theory that in adoption is to be found the origin of the will.

Justinian mentions a peculiar quasi-adoption, by which one could adopt, under certain limitations, "quasi-nepotem." Or a woman (denied every other form) could adopt as a consolation for the loss of natural children.

In conclusion, two abuses are mentioned. The first was a device of politicians like Clodius to become eligible for the Tribuneship through social degradation obtained by arrogation into a plebian family. The second was the outcome of laws designed to encourage marriage, and granting privileges to parents of a certain number of children.

4. "The Sources of our Knowledge of the Pronunciation of Latin,"* by Professor John C. Rolfe, of the University of Michigan.

It is the object of this paper by a brief presentation of the evidence to support the thesis, that we are able to determine very nearly the exact nature of the Latin sounds; so that in pronouncing Latin by the so-called Roman method we should at least be understood by a contemporary of Cicero or of Augustus.

When we speak of the Roman pronunciation, we must remember that the pronunciation of Latin, like that of English, differed according to the period, the stratum of society to which the speaker belonged, his locality, and other conditions. We may take as our standard the pronunciation of the Roman gentleman of the Ciceronian and Augustan epochs. Secondly, we must bear

*This paper revised and extended will appear in a later number of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*.

in mind that the use of the evidence is expert work, requiring above all a knowledge of the principles of Phonetics. That the Romans themselves were exceedingly particular about their pronunciation is evident from the testimony of Cicero (*Orator* 51, 173).

Of the evidences we have first *The Testimony of Ancient Latin Writers*. The development of the science of grammar among the Romans went on contemporaneously with that of the literature, and aroused the interest of men in very different lines of work. Therefore, besides the long list of professional grammarians, extending from the second century before Christ to the eighth of our era, we may cull evidence from the pages of writers on all sorts of subjects. Among others the poets, especially the early dramatic poets, give us valuable evidence.

To estimate the comparative value of the testimony of the grammarians is not easy. We may trace many statements of the later writers to earlier and better authorities; and in general the nearer a grammarian stands in time to the period which we have taken as our standard the more valuable his testimony is likely to be. It must be remembered, however, that the description of the sounds of a spoken language is not easy, and that it is especially necessary that the observer be free from preconceived notions and set down conscientiously exactly what he hears. So it is possible that the greater lights, who were better acquainted with the Grecian philological literature, and more inclined to theorize, sometimes offer testimony of less value than the so-called inferior grammarians. The evidence from each source must be carefully scrutinized in the light of our other testimony.

Our second source is *The Testimony of Inscriptions and Manuscripts*. The former, which have come to us exactly as they were written, are the more valuable; especially those which represent the language of the common people, whose orthography was phonetic rather than conventional. Even our earliest manuscripts are colored by characteristics of the language of the period to which the copyist belonged.

In the inscriptions we find three devices for indicating long vowels. The poet Accius is said to have introduced the custom of doubling *a*, *e*, and *u* when long, a device which he probably borrowed from Oscan. Long *i* was denoted by *ei*. An examination of the inscriptions shows that the prevalent use of doubled letters falls between 132 and 74 B. C., a period which corresponds very closely with the life of Accius.

An "I longa" appears as the designation of *i* from about the time of Sulla, and is met most frequently in inscriptions of the first century of our era. This evidence must be used with care, since the "I longa" was used for other purposes. Sometimes, too, it is not easy to determine whether or not it is intentionally made taller than the other letters. It is sometimes purely decorative.

An apex (') over long vowels is found frequently from about the beginning of the Empire. This, too, was used for other purposes, to denote the synesis of a vowel in some cases, to mark abbreviations, and to divide words. Both the apex and the tall *I* were sometimes improperly used in the case of vowels which we know to have been short.

A third source is *The Study of the Latin Language*, the observation of the modifications of the sounds at different periods, of the so-called compensatory lengthening, and the like.

Equally important are the results of *Comparison with the other Indo-European Languages and with the Romance Languages*. The latter especially, since they represent the natural development of the vernacular Latin, unaffected by the artificial restrictions of the classical period, give valuable testimony as to the Latin sounds, and also as to their quantity, since the history of the long vowels in Romance differs from that of the short. This evidence shows us that (except *a*) the Latin long vowels differed from the corresponding short ones in *quality*, and that in the Roman pronunciation the vowels do not "always have the same sound." The failure to observe this is the cause of the tendency to pronounce *est*, *et*, *enim* as if the *e* were long.

Fifthly, we have *The Transcription of Latin Words into the Greek Alphabet* in inscriptions, and in the works of Greek writers of the Roman period; and conversely the representation of Greek borrowed words in Latin.

And lastly, we find valuable evidence in *The Orthography of Latin Borrowed Words in the Germanic and Celtic Languages*. For example the form of "Patrick" from Latin *Patricius* shows that in the fifth century assimilation of *c* before *i* had not yet taken place in that part of the Roman world. The same is seen from German Keller (Lat. *cella*), Kiste (*cista*), and the like.

5. "Notes on hidden Quantities in Latin,"* by Professor Charles E. Bennett, of Cornell University.

The writer first discussed the quantity of the vowel in the oblique cases of *pons*, *mons*, *fons*, *frons* (-*ndis*), and *frons* (-*ntis*). The following evidence was cited in favor of short *o* in these words:

1. The analogy of other words in *-ns* (-*ntis*).
2. The testimony of the Romance languages. Of these, the Italian and Provençal have a close *o*, representing the *o* of Latin, in all five of these words. The Spanish has close *o* in two of them, *viz.* : *fronde* and *monte*, while in the three others, it has *ue* for *o*, *viz.* : in *fruente*, *puente*, *fuente*. In all Romance words, as is well known, close *o* points to an original close *o* of the Latin, and the close Latin *o* was long. Spanish *ue*, however, points to an original open *o*, and open Latin *o* was short. An obvious interpretation of the Romance evidence would be to infer that the Latin words under discussion all had close (*i. e.* long) *o* originally, and that in Spanish this close *o* became open, breaking into *ue* in *fruente*, *puente*, *fuente*, while in Spanish *fronde* and *monte* the close *o* was retained. But it was pointed out that another and more rational explanation offers itself. In Italian and Provençal, an open (*i. e.* a short) Latin *o* regularly becomes close when followed by *l*, *m*, *n* + a following consonant. Thus Latin *tondet* with short (*i. e.* open) *o* becomes in Italian *tonde* with close *o*; Latin *respondet* with open *o* be-

* Printed in full in the author's *Appendix to Latin Grammar for Teachers and Advanced Students* (in press).

comes in Italian *risponde* with close *o*; so *rhombus* becomes *rombo*; and *polypus* becomes *polipo*. When this principle is applied to the words in question, it is seen that the close *o* in the Romance descendants of *pontem*, *fontem*, *montem*, *frontem*, and *frondem* is the regular descendant of an open (*i. e.* a short) Latin *o*. Spanish *fruente*, *fuente*, *puente*, in this case are seen to be perfectly regular. Spanish *fronde* and *monte*, on the other hand, with their close *o* (pointing apparently to Latin close *o*) are irregular. These were explained as loan words from the Italian.

3. The third class of evidence was found in the testimony of Greek trans-literations of the above Latin words and their derivatives in texts and inscriptions. Evidence of this sort is obtained for all of the words except *frons* (-ndis). Greek *omicron* is invariably employed to represent the *o*-sound of the Latin words, *omega* is never used.

All the evidence, therefore, is in harmony in pointing to a short *o* for these words.

The second category of words discussed comprised those containing *gn*. It is generally held that every vowel was long in Latin before *gn*, but this conclusion rests on insufficient evidence. Priscian asserts the length of the vowel before *gn* only in case of words ending in *-gnus*, *-gna* and *-gnum*. It may therefore well be doubted whether we should recognize a long vowel before *gn* in any other words than those mentioned by Priscian, except where there is positive evidence, such as the *apex*, the tall I or some definite testimony of a trustworthy grammarian.

The quantity of *u* in the Genitive termination-*um* of *a*-and *o*-stems was then discussed, *viz.* in such words as *nummum*, *talentum*, etc. Mompusen holds that the omission of *-m* in the Genitive Plural of these words in Latin inscriptions, when considered in connection with the retention of *-m* in the Accusative Singular points to a long *o* (later long *u*) for the Genitive forms. This view was shown to rest on the arbitrary interpretation of very scanty material. The solitary *apex* in *duumviratum* was explained as a probable error; even if admitted as authoritative, this *apex* would not prove the length of the final *u* in the Genitive Plural *duum*, since it remains to be shown that *duumvir* contains the Genitive of *duo*.

The last class of words discussed included *arca libertus*, *forte*, *Narbo*, where the vowel is followed by *r* + a consonant. Each of these words is found once or twice with an *apex* (pointing to a long vowel). But the *apex* here was held to be either altogether erroneous, or, more probably, to point merely to a sporadic local development of a short vowel to a long one in this special situation (before *r* + a consonant). English exhibits this same peculiarity.

Remarks were made by Professor Ashmore and several others.

At the close of the morning session Principal J. G. Pattengill, Chairman of the Committee on Arrangements, announced the following State Vice-Presidents of the Conference: New York, Prof. Sidney G. Ashmore, of Union College,

Schenectady ; New Jersey, Prof. Andrew F. West, of Princeton ; Pennsylvania, Prof. Alfred Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania ; Ohio, Prof. S. C. Derby, of the Ohio State University ; Indiana, Prof. H. A. Hoffman, of the University of Indiana ; Illinois, Principal O. S. Westcott, of Chicago ; Missouri, Prof. W. G. Manly, of the University of Missouri ; Wisconsin, Prof. W. A. Eckels, of Ripon College.

The following committees were appointed :

On question-box, Prof. W. G. Hale, of Chicago University, Chairman ; Prof. H. F. Burton, of Rochester University ; Prof. J. H. Gillespie, of Hope College ; Prof. S. L. Wright, of Beloit College, and Prof. B. L. D'Ooge, of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti.

For consideration of the question, What should be the Preparation of those who purpose to teach Latin and Greek ? Prof. Charles E. Bennett, of Cornell University, Chairman ; Prof. S. G. Ashmore, of Union College ; Miss Marianna Brown, Earlham College ; Mr. E. A. Bechtel, of Northwestern University ; Mr. Isaac B. Burgess, of Morgan Park Academy, Illinois ; Prof. F. W. Brown, Franklin College ; Prof. Alfred Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania ; Prof. W. G. Hale, Chicago University ; Prof. George L. Hendrickson, of the University of Wisconsin ; Mr. Daniel W. Lothman, Central High School Cleveland ; Prof. F. W. Kelsey, University of Michigan ; Prof. W. G. Manly, University of Missouri ; Prof. C. M. Moss, University of Illinois ; Dr. A. F. Nightingale, Sup't of the Chicago High Schools ; Principal J. G. Pattengill, Ann Arbor High School ; Prof. J. R. Smith, University of Ohio, Principal E. F. Stearns, Lake High School, Chicago, and Prof. Andrew F. West, of Princeton.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The session opened at 2:00 o'clock with Principal O. S. Westcott, of the North Division High School, Chicago, in the chair.

6. "On the Use of the Infinitive after certain Verbs in

Greek," by Professor C. M. Moss, of the University of Illinois.

Pending a further examination of data, no abstract of this paper is here given. The paper was discussed by Professor Eckels, of Ripon College, and others.

7. " *Ilpív* in Xenophon," by Principal J. G. Pattengill, of the Ann Arbor High School.

The purpose of the paper is to discuss the subject from the stand-point of the high school teacher and to derive some practical benefit from it for class-room use.

Xenophon's usage with *πρίν* agrees in general with the Attic prose writers of his period.

I. Modes. The infinitive predominates, as was to be expected, appearing in ninety-seven of the one hundred and thirty-four examples found. Eight instances appear of the infinitive in negative sentences. In these *πρίν* means "before" and not "until" which meaning is confined to the finite modes.

Ilpív with a finite mode appears in negative sentences only, where it means both "before" and "up to the time when." Our English particle "until" has this same double sense and therefore correctly represents the meaning of *πρίν* with the finite modes.

Xenophon uses the indicative frequently. *Ilpív* with the subjunctive is accompanied by *δύ*, except in one instance. There are three examples of the generic subjunctive, and one where *πρίν* with the subjunctive is the protasis and the optative with *δύ* the apodosis. The subjunctive is used twice in clauses depending upon a secondary tense. Elsewhere the optative takes the place of the subjunctive in this relation. This is practically the only use of the optative. The optative is used once in the protasis of a less vivid future condition.

II. The Tenses. a. Of the Infinitive. The aorist is used sixty times; the present thirty-four; the perfect three. The infinitive with *πρίν* does not of itself denote time. Therefore the notion that the aorist infinitive denotes time prior to the principal verb is erroneous. The aorist and present may be interchanged in any example without affecting the time-relation.

The present is used freely, but only twice in clauses depending upon the pluperfect or aorist indicative. Generally the present has the force of "continuance, effort or the like," but is sometimes used simply for rhetorical effect, without any clear significance of continuance.

b. Of the Finite Modes. The aorist is the only tense of the indicative used with *πρίν*. The present subjunctive and optative each appear once only.

III. Minor Points. *Ilpíτερον* and *πρίσθεν* are often used. *Ilpív* *γ* occurs three times. *γ* *πρίν* (first used by Xenophon) appears four times.

IV. Practical Application. Pupils should write the infinitive with *πρίν* in affirmative and finite modes in negative sentences. When a finite mode

is required the aorist tense should be used. The aorist is also the only tense of the infinitive which the beginner will often have any occasion to use.

Those interested in the subject are referred to Prof. Gildersleeve's articles in Am. Jour. of Phil., Vols. II. and IV., and to Sturm's "Geschichtliche Entwicklung der Constructionen mit πρίν."

8. "The Movements of the Chorus in singing the *Carmen Saeculare*," by Mr. Walter Dennison, Jones Fellow of the University of Michigan, at Rome.

Unfortunately Mr. Dennison's paper did not reach Ann Arbor in time to be read. As against the current view that the *Carmen* was sung by the chorus on passing from the Palatine to the Capitoline Hill, he brings forward evidence to prove that it was sung first before the Temple of Apollo on the Palatine Hill, then perhaps on the Capitoline, but not on the way between.

9. "The Constitution of the Gallic State," by Mr. Wm. W. Bishop, of the Academy of Northwestern University.

The aim of the paper is to give an exact and orderly account of the ideals and machinery of government among the Gauls before the Roman conquest, such as can be obtained by consulting the Greek and Latin authors touching on Gaul. Caesar naturally furnishes the basis of the work, but the other authors, such as Strabo, Ammianus Marcellinus, Livy, Diodorus Siculus, Dio Cassius, etc., have been constantly consulted. The conclusions reached are in substance as follows:

There were three classes in Gallic society, the people (*plebs*), the warriors or gentry (*equites*), and the priests (*Druides*). The two latter had controlling powers in the State. The nobles, drawn from the warrior class, were called *principes*, or chiefs, and had complete dominion in military and political matters. The Druids served as judges as well as priests and formed an immense secret organization or brotherhood. One of the *principes* was usually more powerful than the rest in a tribe and was said to hold the *principatus civitatis*. In some tribes magistrates were chosen under certain restrictions to administer the government. There were but very few kings of tribes remaining in Gaul at the time of the conquest, but in earlier days an hereditary monarchy had been the prevailing form of government. Matters of public business were decided by councils, composed probably of the chiefs of the tribe. The laws were almost entirely traditional or customary, and these councils do not appear in any sense as legislative bodies. Among the more highly civilized tribes there were taxes and impost duties.

The whole number of tribes was usually divided into two great factions with a powerful nation at the head of each. Many tribes were tributary to their stronger neighbors and were called by the Romans *clientes*. There was, however, a certain degree of national feeling, for we hear of councils of the whole nation, *concilia totius Galliae*. The normal condition of the country appears to have been a state of continual war, and the government reflects this condition.

10. "The Authenticity of the Moretum," by Mr. W. S. Elden, of the University of Michigan.

A comparison of the Moretum with the undoubtedly genuine works of Vergil shows marked differences in the use of single words and of expressions, the author of the Moretum departing in quite numerous instances from the classical usage.

Imitations of other authors are much less frequent in the Moretum than in the Culex or Ciris. Perhaps the only direct imitation of Vergil is in vs. 82, (with which cf. Ecl. i. 35), although there are several passages which have some resemblance to passages in Vergil and Ovid. The simple, unaffected diction of the Moretum is in marked contrast to the somewhat artificial character of the composition, and the lack of reality in the Eclogues.

Of the rhetorical figures, so frequently employed by Vergil, very few cases occur in the Moretum. An examination of the metrical structure of the poem shows greater strictness in the use of the caesura than we find in Vergil. There are but twenty cases of elision, and its use and position in the verse are more carefully restricted than is the case in Vergil. The beginning of the verse is the part which best shows the personal element. The Romans attached great importance to making the first foot a dactyl. A comparison of the use of dactyls and spondees in the Moretum (123 verses), with the Eclogues, (809 verses), gives the following results:

MORETUM			ECLOGUES		MORETUM
Form.	No.	Proportion.	No.	Proportion.	
D D D D.	4	I:30.7	27	I:29.9 vss.	First Foot—S:D::33.3:66.7.
D D D S.	13	I:9.5	57	I:14.2	All Four Feet—S:D::52.3:47.7.
D D S D.	3	I:41	59	I:13.7	ECLOGUES I-X
D D S S.	15	I:8.2	105	I:7.7	First Foot—S:D::36.4:63.6.
D S D D.	6	I:20.5	42	I:19.3	All Four Feet—S:D::52.8:47.2.
D S D S.	13	I:9.5	80	I:10.1	ECLOGUE I
D S S D.	8	I:15.4	64	I:12.6	First Foot—S:D::42.2:57.8.
D S S S.	20	I:6.2	92	I:8.8	All Four Feet—S:D::62.7:37.3.
S D D D.	5	I:24.6	19	I:42.6	ECLOGUE V
S D D S.	9	I:13.7	43	I:18.8	First Foot—S:D::38:62.
S D S D.	4	I:30.7	38	I:21.3	All Four Feet—S:D::52:48.
S D S S.	11	I:11.2	65	I:12.3	
S S D D.	3	I:41	24	I:33.7	
S S D S.	2	I:61.5	33	I:24.5	
S S S D.	4	I:30.7	22	I:36.8	
S S S S.	3	I:41	39	I:20.7	

Our authority for ascribing the Moretum to Vergil is very slight. In Donatus' and Servius' enumerations of the minor poems it is not mentioned.

There are no good reasons for supposing it to have been written by Septimius Serenus.

J. G. Voss, (De Poet. Gr. 9) states that in a Codex Ambrosianus he found a scholium which reads: "Parthenios Moretum scripsit in Graeco quem Vergilius imitatus est." We know that Suevius (cf. Macrobi Sat. III. 18), wrote a Moretum, and it has been conjectured that Parthenios was the model,

both for him and for Vergil, thus providing a Greek original for our poem. Evidence is, however, lacking to establish this theory.

In view of the differences in the use of language, structure of the hexameter, and style between the Moretum and Eclogues, Georgics, and *Æneid*, it does not seem possible to ascribe it to Vergil, nor have we enough evidence positively to assign it to any other author.

Its date of composition cannot have been later than 35 A. D., very likely somewhat earlier.

II. "Pliny's Villa at Laurentum," by Professor H. W. Magoun, of Oberlin College.

Pliny's description of his villa at Laurentum offers a tempting field for the investigator; but it is beset with difficulties. Conjecture is a dangerous thing and the personal equation is sure to affect results. Any attempt, therefore, to make a plan of the villa must proceed along four lines:—first, the imagination must be restrained; second, the conditions of the description must all be satisfied; third, the plan must conform to remains already in our possession so far as we have them; and fourth, the rules of Vitruvius must be obeyed. A plan in which an attempt has been made to conform to these principles may be found in the Proceedings of the American Philological Association for Dec...1894 (published by Ginn & Co., Boston), with a list of the rooms and a brief discussion of my views concerning the *cavædium* and *atrium*. The plan, however, needs some modifications. In accordance with a suggestion of Prichard and Bernard (Pliny's Letters), the porticoes are represented as two half circles with an *area* between. Of the nine plans which I have obtained since my own was ready for publication, one represents the porticoes in the form of a rectangle with pillars in the interior forming two arcs of a circle; two represent it by an ellipse; three, by a circle; and three by a half circle, though they differ in its arrangement. None of these views seem satisfactory. The porticoes take the place of the *tablinum* and the presumption is that they occupy its space also, *i. e.*, the D shape required—for this reading is now the accepted one—will on this basis give a half circle plus a half square, or, in other words, we shall have the square space of the *tablinum* with the corners on the side toward the *cavædium* rounded off, while an *area* of a similar shape occupies the centre. Such an arrangement may well be called D shaped and seems to satisfy all requirements. The porticoes in my plan as published occupy a space of the width of the *tablinum*, but too long to satisfy the above conditions.

A second change is necessary in the upper stories; for it seems clear that the *cenatio* is in the third story of the first tower and not beside it. The space thus left should be given to the *apotheca* and the *horreum*.

The other plans are well agreed on two *procoeta* instead of one near the *cubiculum politissimum*, although the meaning may be "the *procoeton*" instead of "a *procoeton*." It seems probable, however, that they are right.

No plan of the house in the garden thus far offered seems satisfactory, though all have their good points. It appears probable that the *zotheca* has three free sides and faces the northwest, while the other rooms lie in a con-

tinuous line with the possible exception of the *procoeton* and the *hypocauston*.

It is my hope that I may be able to collect all the plans heretofore published and present them in a single article with a careful discussion of all the points involved, and a revision of my own plan with such improvements as I am able to make.

12. "How shall we make Instruction in Latin Prose Composition effective?" by Mr. A. I. Dotey, High School No. 1, Indianapolis.

Essential conditions of success are, enthusiastic teacher and interested pupils. These necessitate a well-defined purpose in the mind of the teacher, and such presentation of the work as will make this purpose evident to the pupils.

The ultimate purpose of all Latin instruction is, to enable the pupil to read and appreciate, without translation, the works of Latin writers and speakers. The immediate purpose of instruction in prose composition should be, to develop a clearer understanding of the relation existing between thought and the means of its expression; for thus is developed the highest power of appreciation. And experience proves that a clear understanding of this relation is best attained by continued practice in the art of composition.

This drill should be entered upon as soon as a Latin form is given. If neglected the first year, success is doubtful in the more formal composition work of the higher grades.

The pupil should be required to employ each new Latin form in expressing what is elsewhere expressed in English form. Yet he should meet with no difficulties in the English for which Latin models previously studied have no solution. The energy wasted in mastering such a difficulty is sufficient to fix in the mind a dozen words or principles previously presented in some Latin text.

When a Latin author (except a poet) is taken up, this principle may be best observed by basing the prose exercises on the text of that author; for thus the prose exercises conduce to a clearer understanding of his style.

In recitation, the text and prose should go hand in hand. The text is then fresher in the mind, and therefore can be more readily utilized as a model for prose than if the recitation occurred but once a week.

In any given chapter, all important new words, idioms, orders of arrangement, and grammatical relations should receive attention; but when the solution of these difficulties has been fixed in the pupil's mind, the purpose of the prose exercise has been attained. There should be oral exercises involving the use of the simpler Latin forms, and written exercises necessitating the use of the more complicated forms of the Latin sentences.

The different forms employed in expressing any given relation, not only in successive chapters of the same author, but also in the texts of different authors, should be compared; *e. g.*, "Gallos præcedunt," and "omnibus præstanter." Caes. "Non est dubium quin," Caes, and "Hand dubie res

est quin," Livy. Such comparison broadens the pupil's view of Latin form, and thereby increases his ability to read at sight.

Each successive author studied will add his quota of new words, idioms, and grammatical relations, which if fixed in the pupil's mind by exercises in composition, will ultimately result in the "ability to read and appreciate, without translating, the works of Latin writers and speakers."

13. "Review of recent Latin Prose Books: Those in particular that base their exercises on the text of Caesar and Cicero," by Principal E. L. Mason, of the Charlotte High School.

The principal value of Latin writing and that which alone entitles it to a place in our course of study consists in the fact that it greatly develops the power to understand and appreciate the original text. Other values it indeed has, but this is the principal one. Everything then in the prose book that furthers to the greatest extent this object is to be commended; whatever is not especially effective in this regard ought to be rejected.

Prose composition develops this power *first* by enlarging and vivifying the pupil's knowledge of forms. Prose books ought in a systematic manner to bring into use those forms that are encountered less frequently in reading the text. In particular the first and second plural of the passives, the imperative, irregular verbs, and irregular noun forms. No prose book has yet done this very effectively.

Secondly, by increasing and clarifying his knowledge of constructions, it increases the pupil's feeling for idiom and his power of anticipation in reading. But aside from developing the principal constructions systematically, the exercises of the prose book ought to bring into use different constructions than those contained in the text, if the words there used may take others; to illustrate: if *paenitet* occurs in the text with the thing regretted in the genitive case, the exercises should contain the proper grammatical references and be so worded as to express the same idea by an infinitive clause. This should be done in the case of most of the words occurring in the text and admitting of several constructions until the pupil becomes thoroughly familiar with them, and can tell immediately what common constructions may be used with any given word. This whole matter, however, should be taken up gradually and carefully. It has not been done in any prose book thus far issued, but I believe it the best way of mastering such constructions.

The exercises should not, as is the case with some of our text books, follow the text too closely in forms and constructions. Some of these are hardly more than a literal translation of different sentences of the text and are practically worthless as material to illustrate the use of the different forms and constructions.

Again, the continued use of exercises based on the text as read from day to day tends to make the pupil too dependent on the model before him. I therefore believe that such exercises should be interspersed with exercises not based on the text, but containing so far as possible its vocabulary and general style.

Papers 12 and 13 called forth a particularly active discussion. Professor Gudeman emphasized the expediency of basing exercises upon the Latin of Caesar's Commentaries, and declared Caesar to be "absorbingly interesting." Mr. I. B. Burgess, of the Morgan Park Academy, said :

"For pure joy I want to say a word. A Professor has come all the way from Pennsylvania to maintain that Caesar is interesting and that the Latin of Nepos is so poor that composition should not be based upon it. The Chairman will remember that I once maintained both these propositions in Chicago with the smallest possible encouragement.

"I cannot agree with one of the essayists that pupils should be required in writing Latin to use the particular word or construction which was used in the chapter under treatment. The pupil may use any good Latin, if he can show that it is good; *e. g.*, for "to surpass" he may use either *praecedere* with the accusative, as found in the first chapter of Caesar, or *praestare* with the dative, as found in the second.

"A serious fault in the training of many pupils in composition is that they do far too little sight work. While it is doubtless necessary to have much work done as home lessons for the sake of volume of practice, power can be fully tested only where the pupil writes in a limited time and under the eye of the teacher, sentences not seen before and with no assistance from text, vocabulary, or grammar."

Professor B. L. D'Ooge, of the Michigan State Normal School, declared that recent prose books are defective in three particulars :

- a.* They are too difficult.
- b.* They do not have enough work of an oral nature that is simple enough to be useful and practicable for beginners.
- c.* A vital defect is that no one of them combines continuous prose with an orderly development of the principles of Latin syntax. It was well to abandon the old method of detached sentences, which, while regarding instruction in syntax, could never impart a proper feeling for Latin order; but we have erred in the opposite direction.

The session closed with the Report of the Committee on Illustrative Material.

EVENING SESSION

The evening session, which commenced at 7:45, was devoted to the discussion of the question : "Shall we have a six years'

High School Latin course?" Professor Bennett, of Cornell University, presided. The large audience listened with intense interest to the three addresses by Professor West, of Princeton University, Professor Hale, of the University of Chicago, and Superintendent A. F. Nightingale, of the Chicago High Schools, which are given on pp. 321, 334, 335.

After Superintendent Nightingale's address, the following resolutions were presented, and were taken up separately :

Resolved, That this Conference strongly favors a six-year Latin course in our schools.

Resolved, That this Conference disapproves of the proposal embodied in the report of the Committee of Ten reducing the amount of Greek preparatory to college, and joins with the American Philological Association in declaring that at least three years of Greek ought to be provided in the classical course of our secondary schools.

The first resolution was seconded, with remarks of hearty endorsement, by Professor Hale, Superintendent Nightingale, Professors Gudeman, Ashmore, Johnson of Denison University, Kelsey and others. Mr. Burgess alone spoke against it. He said :

Reluctant as I am to oppose here those whose opinions I value highly, I should be false to myself, if I did not say a word against the resolution which has been introduced, favoring a six years' Latin Course. It is useless to say that the resolution will simply give our approval and endorsement to any exceptionally favored community that can give a more generous allotment of time than usual to college preparation. The resolution does not simply say that six years should be given to college preparation, but goes much farther. It presumes to decide upon the allotment of time to the various studies—six calendar years ought to be devoted to Latin, thus practically excluding the earlier study of French or German as proposed by Mr. Collar in a recent number of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*. Mr. Collar advanced cogent reasons against beginning Latin at the early age required for a six years' course and in favor of beginning French at this age, and it must not be forgotten that Mr. Collar takes this position after thirty years' experience with the six years' Latin Course which the resolution calls for. In spite of the time-honored practice of England and Germany, may it not be that we may, while retaining the thoroughness of the German Course, make an improvement upon it? I am thoroughly opposed to destroying the possibility of such an improvement. The resolution before us would do this. The question between Latin and Modern languages in the earlier years of a six years' course is a comparatively new one in this country; it has not been adequately discussed and certainly cannot be intelligently decided by this conference in one evening.

It is possible that we might all agree on some modification of the resolu-

tion. We are all, I take it, in favor of an enriched grammar school course and we all want better preparation in Latin. At present we are not getting four full years. Two years might be given to a modern language and then during the remaining four calendar years enough time given to Latin in addition to the single recitation per day to make up a fifth year; *e. g.* eight recitations might be given to Latin the year it is begun, five in each of the next two years and seven in the last year of the course. I feel sure that under such a system more Latin would be learned than in a six years' course with recitations once a day. It must be remembered that children without any previous training in a foreign language and with little knowledge of grammar advance very slowly in a difficult language like Latin.

The second resolution was warmly supported, without adverse comment. After full discussion both resolutions were carried without a dissenting vote.

THURSDAY, MARCH 28

MORNING SESSION

The session opened at 9:30. Superintendent Nightingale presided.

14. "Two of Caesar's Battle Grounds," by Mr. John C. Hanna, of the Columbus, Ohio, High School.

The speaker described first a visit to the scene of Caesar's victory over Ariovistus described in the first book of "The Gallic War." He showed the inaccuracy of the map in the "History of Julius Caesar," by Napoleon III., which is the basis of the maps in some of the best known school editions. The "tumulus terrenus" which was selected by the two commanders as the "locus colloqui" because it was midway between the position of the Roman army and that of the German army, is marked in those maps as being in a position where Mr. Hanna demonstrated by actual examination of the ground for some miles that no hill or elevation noticeable to the eye is found. The speaker surmises that the error may have arisen from a careless reading of the context, and from placing the hill at a point half way from Caesar's position to the camp of Ariovistus "sub monte," mentioned in chapter 48, that is half of "sex milia passuum" distant, instead of half of "quattuor et viginti milia passuum" distant [see chapter 41]. The charge of error was fortified by quotations from so good an authority as Von Kampen, whose "Descriptiones Nobilissimorum apud Classicos Locorum" were commended by the speaker. The argument was made clearer by a large map of the vicinity in colors and with measurements.

The other battle ground visited was the scene of the "Clades Nerviorum" so vividly described in the second book. The speaker recounted his experiences, some of them amusing, others annoying, and all instructive and interesting. He claimed that the positions and movements of the different

legions and of the tribes opposing them could easily be traced in spite of railroad yards, cinder heaps and other modern improvements, and that with the aid of a little imagination, a modern visitor while quenching his thirst at a little spring on the slope of "Caesar's hill," whose ancient prototype may have cooled the parched throat of many a Roman on that bloody day, may picture before himself the scene on the brow of the hill "where the demoralized baggage train was getting itself together and the boys were yelling for Caesar and Labienus and the tenth legion."

15. "The Credibility of Livy," by Mr. William F. Palmer, of the Lake Forest Academy.

The truly scientific historian is very particular in the selection of his material. He seeks to derive all his information from undoubted sources and is unwilling to accept rumors or traditions as truths, unless substantiated by reliable evidence. Generally speaking the official records are the most reliable material for a historian. There is no going back of these concerning matters far removed in point of time from the present. The Roman people very scrupulously preserved their official records, including both inscriptions upon hard substances and writings on softer material. That many of both of these kinds were in existence in Livy's day, extending over much of the time covered by his extant writings, is known both from his own statements and those from other writers, as Dionysius, Cicero, and Suetonius. Aside from a few decrees of the senate considered in another connection, Livy has left but ten references to inscriptional authority and but seven to the other variety of archives. In VI. 1 he assigns his want of information about the early history of Rome to the destruction of most of these by the Gauls in 390 B. C.

But as all his references to them are found in the first ten books, he evidently showed no disposition to change his historical method after official records became more plentiful. Since he practically barred out this class of material, he was obliged to become a mere copyist of uncertain accounts. This course was decidedly unscientific and is the cause of much of the obscurity which will ever surround early Roman history.

Passing to the authors whom he says he followed, we fail to find any proper discrimination of their probable authenticity. According to him Cincius Alimentus and Macer Licinius must have been excellent authorities, but he has referred to the former but twice, and to the latter seven times. Valerius Autias, who, Livy acknowledges, was habitually given to falsifying, is quoted thirty-two times as authority.

We have been able to cite one hundred and eighteen examples of expressions like *tenet fama, dicitur, tradunt, memoratum est* in his work and conclude that he must have been greatly influenced by tradition.

His history in large part cannot be accepted as authentic; its value consists chiefly in its well-nigh faultless style of composition.

Remarks were made by Professor J. H. Drake, of the University of Michigan, and several others.

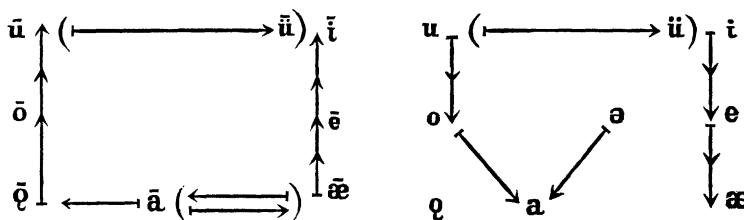
16. "The Latinity of the Vulgate as illustrating the Colloquial Latin of the Time," by Superintendent F. M. Townsend, of Marshall.

The speaker presented a number of quotations illustrating various constructions. Remarks were made by Professor Bennett.

17. "Vowel Shifts in Relation to Time and Stress," by Professor George Hempl, of the University of Michigan.

The paper consisted of (1) a tabular presentation of the free changes in quality that vowels have undergone in Indo-European languages, and (2) a brief statement of the conclusions to be drawn from it. By "free changes" are meant such as are not due to the character of the neighboring sounds, but take place everywhere under the same general conditions of time and stress. Moreover, the paper did not attempt to deal with cases in which vowels break into diphthongs.

The following is a skeleton of the tabulations. The short vowels change much less frequently than the long, and the direction is generally the opposite site.



The following are the theses presented:—

I. As the vowels are the most open of all sounds, it is natural in sounding long ones to economize the stream of breath by raising somewhat higher that part of the tongue that approaches nearest the roof of the mouth. There is thus a tendency to raise the tongue in making long front and back vowels, and this results in their becoming higher, or closer. The central vowel ā is made with the tongue practically at rest, and with no particular approach toward the palate at any one point. Economy of breath in its case, therefore, results in its becoming a back or a front vowel and rising in one of these directions.

II. Short vowels are not as distinctly heard and hence not as well learned as long vowels are. Moreover, in their production there is none too much time to assume the required position, and hence an incomplete articulation—one made with less lifting of the tongue and less drawing back or pushing forward—is often made and may prevail; in other words, if short vowels change, they tend to become lower or central vowels.

III. In the case of back vowels the large resonance chamber is, of course, in front of the place where the tongue approaches nearest to the roof of the

mouth; that the breath may not escape too rapidly in sounding long back vowels, the lips are more or less closed, or rounded, on the same principle that the tongue is raised according to thesis I.

IV. Similarly to thesis II., short back vowels tend to lose their rounding.

V. Rounding is, then, characteristic of back vowels and particularly of long back vowels. Front vowels never acquire it in ordinary speech (except by assimilation to neighboring labials) and if they have it by inheritance, being descended from back vowels, they soon lose it.

VI. Under abnormal circumstances, when there is unusual need for economy of breath, for example, in holding a long note in singing or in prolonging or rapidly repeating a call—under such circumstances front vowels and short back vowels may acquire (or retain, as the case may be) rounding: *sü* for "see" and *düz* for "days" in singing, and *shüp* and *püg* for "sheep" and "pig," *kadü* for "co'day," *chük* and *chook* for "chick," *sook* for "suck," &c., in calls to animals. Cf. also the putting of the hands to the mouth and the use of a trumpet.

VII. Unstressed vowels, even more than short vowels, are subject to the tendency to become a central vowel and finally disappear; but unstressed vowels are much more subject to the influence of neighboring sounds, and thus the law of free change is very often crossed by those of restricted change.

18. "On the *atrium* and *cavum aedium* of a Roman Dwelling," by Professor Sidney G. Ashmore, of Union College.

What difference existed, if any, between the *atrium* of a Roman house and the so called *cavum aedium*? The question is discussed at length by Becker (Gallus, p. 242 ff.), who endeavors to prove that the two terms were employed always to indicate two different and distinct parts of the dwelling. He arrives at this conclusion after an examination of Varro, *De Ling. Lat.* v. 161; Vitruvius, vi. 3 and vi. 5; Plin. *Ep.* ii. 17, and other passages. Let us look at each of these in turn. Varro says that *cavum aedium* is simply the central space of a simple dwelling, and that this interior is broad and roomy (*patulus*), and that it was roofed (*tectus*). Neither *cavum* nor *patulus* have any necessary reference to a hole or cavity in the roof. *Cavum* refers to the interior space between the walls, and *patulus* to the size of the interior as compared with the narrow dimensions of the *cellae* and other small chambers which surround it.

It was important, however, that this *cavum aedium* should admit the light of day, &c., &c., and so, at an early date, a mode of building common among the Etruscans was adopted by the Latins, whereby an opening in the roof was left for this purpose, as also to emit the smoke of the hearth. Varro remarks that such a *cavum aedium* was called *Tuscanicum* from the Etruscans, and adds that it received the name of *atrium* from the Tuscan town of *Atria*, where this style of architecture originated. Yet Becker compels Varro to say that the *cavum aedium* and *atrium* were two different things.

Vitruvius, Bk. vi. ch. 3, distinguishes five varieties of *cava aedium*, of

which the *Tuscanicum* is one; and says: “*Tuscanica sunt in quibus trabes in atrii latitudine traiectae habeant interpensiva* (cross beams), etc.” That the word *atrii* here can refer to no part of the house other than the *cavum aedium* is certain, and yet argument has been made to the contrary (as by Schneider, cit. by Becker, p. 243). But Vitruvius in describing the other species of *cava aedium* does not again make use of the word *atrium*. It is clear that he classifies the various *cava aedium* according to the shape of the roof, or, more strictly speaking, of the *compluvium*, and that when he speaks of the dimensions of the hall itself apart from the opening in its roof he uses the word *atrium*. The two terms denote the same part or section of a dwelling, though employed under somewhat different circumstances.

Now if Becker is right in saying that the words of Vitruvius: *Atriorum vero longitudines*, etc., place *atria* in opposition to *cava aedium*, and therefore prove the two terms to be distinct, how does Becker account for the fact that the dimensions of the *atrium* are given in full by Vitruvius, as well as those of all the other divisions of the Roman house, while the dimensions of the *cavum aedium* are omitted?

The paper then proceeds to examine Vitruv. vi. 5: “*Animadvertendum est quibus rationibus*, etc., etc.,” in order to show further how little support Vitruvius lends to Becker's position; and also Vitruv. vi. 7: “*Atrii Graeci quia non utuntur, neque aedificant*,” from which passage Becker, while correctly inferring that *atrium* and *ώδηρι* were different, incorrectly concludes that the *atrium* and *cavum aedium* could not have been the same, because *ώδηρι* (as he alleges) was equivalent to *cavum aedium*. Upon what authority does Becker make this last statement? That the courtyard (*ώδηρι*) of the Greek house, with its peristyle, somewhat resembled the *cavum aedium* of a later date, especially that sort classed by Vitruvius as *Corinthium*, is clear enough; but the origin of the latter was Tuscan, not Greek, and the resemblance was a matter of accident rather than design. But suppose them to be identical. It is easy to show that Horace makes no distinction between *ώδηρι* and *atrium*, by a comparison of Od. 3, 1, 46 with Od. 2, 9, 7; and of these again with Ep. 1, 1, 87, where the identity of *aula* with *atrium* is beyond question. In Horace's time then, supposing Becker to be correct, the terms *cavum aedium* and *atrium* must have been synonymous, if for no other reason than that they are each equivalent to *ώδηρι*. But the fact is that Horace uses the word *aula* for *atrium*, because, being Greek, it is suggestive of luxury; and without reference to technical difference. Vitruvius, however, whose business it is to take account of technical distinctions, uses *aula* as the equivalent of *peristylium*, (vi. 7), and makes it very evident that the latter was to the Greek dwelling what the *atrium* was to the Roman. But in his chapter on the Greek house he nowhere makes use of the term *cavum aedium*. There is nothing in fact in Vitruvius to warrant any technical identification of the *cavum aedium* of the Roman dwelling with the *ώδηρι* of the Greek.

The paper goes on to dispose of the passage in Pliny, Ep. 2, 17; showing that the expression *cavaedium hilare* there is only another way of designating an inner *atrium* when there are two *atria* in the same dwelling; *cavaedium*, in

view of its original application and derivation, being more suitable than *atrium* to mark the inner court or hall. And again, in view of the classification of Vitruvius (into *Corinthium*, &c.), cavaedium was also the more suitable word to designate an *atrium* that was *hilare* or well open to the sky, especially in an age when the *atrium* proper had come to be usually a well enclosed waiting room for visitors.

The ancient Roman dwelling of the average kind, in Republican and early Imperial times, contained an *atrium*, *tablinum* (which was really part of the *atrium*) and a *peristylum* (including a portico), with perhaps a *hortus* or garden beyond. All else, however important, was in a sense subsidiary. Now, if Becker be right, we must add to these principal divisions the *cavum aedium*. For this we have no warrant beyond some vague suggestions in the poets (notably Verg. Aen. 2, 483 ff., which, however, is easily explained away), and the letter of Pliny already cited. Of the latter no more need be said here. Of the poets it may be remarked that they carelessly confuse Greek nomenclature with Roman, and that variety of expression is of more importance with them than accuracy of detail. Nor do the passages in Festus, Quintilian (I. O. xi. 2, 20), the elder Pliny (xiv. 1, 3), or Isidorus (xv. 3), cited by Becker, appear to throw any light upon the question. It is a matter of interest, however, that the conclusion here reached (independently) is largely in accord with the views of Marquardt, as well as with those of the author of the article "Domus" in Smith's Dictionary (Third Edition). Our best guides in this matter are evidently Varro and Vitruvius, if only they be rightly interpreted. But Vitruvius especially is not seldom obscure. That the *atrium* was somewhat different in Pliny's day from the *atrium* of an earlier time is both probable, and is suggested by Pliny himself (Ep. v. 6, 15); but this fact does not point to any radical difference between *atrium* and *cavum aedium*. The truth lies between the extremes, yet on the side of the practical identity of the two expressions. Varro declares the two terms to have been originally synonymous. Vitruvius has pointed out that they both refer to the same thing, regarded however from different standpoints; and subsequent writers furnish no evidence of a positive nature to show that there was ever any important departure from the rules and directions of the famous architect.

Remarks were made by Professor Magoun.

The Report of the Committee of the High School Classical Library was now given.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The session opened at 2 o'clock, with Professor S. C. Derby, of the Ohio State University in the chair.

19. "Benefits accruing to Classical Studies from previous Study of Modern Languages," by Professor Henry F. Burton, of the University of Rochester.

It is the purpose of this paper to suggest that French and German be begun before Latin and Greek, and to show that the educational value of Latin and Greek studies would be increased by such reversal of the usual order.

At the age of ten years a child should be able to read and write simple English fairly well. At that age let him begin French, giving to it a daily lesson for two years. At the age of twelve let him begin German and continue it as a daily study for two years, meantime giving to French one or two hours a week. At fourteen Latin should be begun and continued for four years, occupying at least five hours a week. At fifteen Greek should be begun and continued as a daily study for three years, or at sixteen, if two years are thought sufficient. During these four years German and French should be kept up by giving to each language one or two hours a week. Thus preparation for college would be completed at eighteen, which is the usual age at present. College work in Latin and Greek would remain much the same as now, as regards the authors read and the collateral subjects of study. The time now spent in college in acquiring the rudiments of French and German would be free for advanced studies in these and other departments.

The proposed order conforms to recognized principles of educational science. Simple subjects should precede those that are more complex; subjects that are closely related to subjects already known should be taken before those that are remotely related to them; studies of immediate practical value should be taken early, culture studies should be taken later. The modern languages are simpler in structure, more similar to English, and more useful in practical life than the ancient; hence, they should be studied before the ancient.

The following are some of the advantages that would accrue to Latin and Greek studies from the previous study of French and German:

1. The pupil would bring to the study of Latin a well-trained verbal memory.

2. He would have acquired a sound method of language study, embracing oral exercises, reading, writing and grammatical study,—a method most easily learned in the study of living languages.

3. He would have received training in the art of translation. The Latin and Greek texts first set for translation are too difficult, both in style and substance, for the average beginner. After four years' practice in translating easy French and German he would be prepared for Caesar and Xenophon.

4. Translation is a step toward the acquirement of the ability to read a foreign language without translating it. But this is more difficult in the ancient languages than in the modern, because in the order of thought, in the structure of the sentence, and in the arrangement of words, the former are more foreign to us than the latter. If then the pupil has gained some facility in reading German and French without translation, he will more readily learn to read Latin and Greek.

5. The student would be prepared for the historical and comparative study of the Latin and Greek languages. All branches of so-called philolo-

gical study are begun more advantageously in the modern languages than in the ancient. Vocal sounds and their relations are best studied in living speech. The comparative method is best learned when one's own language forms one term of comparison.

6. The student would be better able to appreciate Latin and Greek literature. Literary taste must be cultivated by studying first the less imaginative and less artistic forms of literature, and the more elaborate at a later stage. Modern literature abounds in works adapted to children and youth. Such works are almost entirely lacking in the ancient authors that have been preserved to us. The Greek and Latin classics are the indispensable instrument of the highest literary culture, provided the learner is fitted by previous training to value and to feel their force and beauty. The usual order of literary study should be reversed,—first our own literature, then modern foreign literature, lastly ancient literature.

7. The early study of modern literature would help the student to understand ancient life. The life of continental Europe is more directly related to ancient life than is our own. Hence it forms a natural introduction to the study of ancient life.

Two practical questions suggest themselves:

1. Can competent teachers be found to teach French and German in the lower schools? The natural working of the law of supply and demand may be depended upon to furnish teachers if they are wanted.

2. Can time be found for the modern languages in our school courses? More time is wasted in most schools in the study of grammar, geography, and arithmetic than would be required for French and German in the scheme here proposed. An American boy spends two years more in doing the work required for entrance to college than a European boy needs to gain the same knowledge.

The reform here proposed is believed to be practicable as well as desirable.

The paper was warmly discussed. Professor Hale was desirous of seeing the experiment tried. Professor Gudeman maintained that the difficulty of learning German is much greater than ordinarily considered. Principal Westcott thought that the courses of the lower schools are too much crowded now, to the detriment of the work, and that room could not be made for the introduction of foreign language study at an earlier period without displacing some subjects of importance. Still he was disposed to favor the study of French and German before Latin. But in all discussions of this kind "it should be borne in mind that the Public High School sends only a small fraction of its pupils to college; no doubt a scheme

which would not work out well in a High School might be successful with a purely preparatory school."

20. "An Examination of Part of Mr. Collar's Translation of the Seventh Book of the *Æneid*," by Mr. Isaac B. Burgess, of the Morgan Park Academy.

We do not as teachers discuss enough among ourselves or with our pupils the principles of translations. Mr. Collar in the belief that a learner "should have a clear notion of what a good translation is, and of the principles on which it should be worked out," has prepared a careful translation of the Seventh Book of the *Æneid*, and placed it on alternate pages parallel with the Latin text which it translates. The purpose of this paper is to give a practical proof of my interest and strong belief in Mr. Collar's effort and to stimulate interest in others.

Such a translation as Mr. Collar proposes must not only be good, but it must be good for boys and girls. It must be simple and it must be dignified. It must give constant attention to the derivation of words. The translation should respect the grammatical structure of sentences when this can be done without sacrificing the beauty and force of the English. Mr. Collar goes too far in saying "that instruction should cease to be directed to forms and syntax, should cease to be grammatical, and should become literary." If instruction and study cease to be grammatical, the translation will not be truthful. Study may and should be more emphatically literary.

The essayist then proceeded to examine the first fourteen lines of the Seventh Book of the *Æneid*, commanding or modifying Mr. Collar's translation in accordance with the principles just stated. The expressiveness and appropriateness of different English words were considered in view of the circumstances attending the scenes depicted and the purpose of the *Æneid*. The position of words was found in some cases to affect the sense, and much light was shed on the meaning by a comparison of passages in Virgil, Homer, and several English poets. Decided emphasis was given to Virgil's artistic literary skill and the great suggestiveness and finish of his style. The various suggestions were summed up in the following translation :

Thou, too, Caieta, nurse of *Æneas*, didst to these shores of ours in dying an undying story give. Even now thine honor guards thy resting-place, and thy name in mighty Hesperia marks thy bones,—if this far-reaching fame of thine is aught to thee.

But good *Æneas*, having duly paid the last rites and heaped up a funeral mound, as soon as the surface of the deep sea has grown still, holds on his way with sails aloft and leaves the harbor. The breezes breathe upon them far into the night and radiant *Luna* refuses not her guidance,—all aglow lies the sea beneath the trembling light. Next they graze the shores of Circe's land, where the rich daughter of the sun thrills with constant song her untrodden grove and in her proud palace burns fragrant cedar for light at night, while she runs through her fine warp with her shrill comb.

My first conclusion from this effort to translate is that translation is impossible. Still Mr. Collar is right in saying that "a detailed and critical study of translation is the best possible way to foster a literary sense and cultivate literary judgment." But to attain this object progress at first must be slow. I cannot agree with Mr. Collar that a pupil will be able to take double the ordinary lesson in using the translation which he has given. Furthermore this literary work should not be the first work that the pupil does upon Latin poetry. Before it is undertaken, the chief peculiarities of poetic forms and syntax and the mechanism of the verse must be well in hand and a good beginning made with a poetic vocabulary.

At 4 o'clock the Conference adjourned to University Hall to attend the Vesper Service. After the service (Professor Stanley being detained at home by illness), Mr. John J. McClellan, an instructor in the University School of Music, rendered selections from the "Messiah" and from "Tannhäuser" upon the Frieze Memorial Organ.* The members of the Conference remained and joined with the members of the Schoolmasters' Club, and the faculty and students of the English department of the University, in listening to a very vigorous paper by Superintendent Nightingale on "The Teaching of English." After this address the reading of papers before the Conference was resumed.

21. "The Cardinal Defect in our Secondary Latin Régime,"† by Mr. E. L. Miller, of the Englewood High School, Chicago.

The cardinal defect in our secondary Latin régime arises from the fact that we do not read the right books. It has been well said that a course in English literature which should include only the first four chapters of Gen. Grant's Memoirs, a half dozen of Burke's parliamentary speeches and six books of *Paradise Lost*, would give a maimed and inadequate conception of the real wealth and the real glory of the English intellect.

Our second year work in particular is in need of radical reformation. What we really want for this purpose is a book written in English with Latin quotations.

Such a book should contain (1) a concise history of Latin literature, (2) a history of Rome down to Caesar's birth, (3) a biography of Caesar.

About this scheme there is no revolutionary principle. It has been tried

* This organ which stood in Festival Hall at the Columbian Exposition, was presented to the University of Michigan by alumni and friends, as a memorial of Henry Simmons Frieze, Professor of Latin in the University 1854-1889, and first President of the University Musical Society.

† This paper will be published in full in the *Journal of Pedagogy* for June.

in an old and well known edition of Ovid and in scores of books written for those who cannot read Latin and Greek. It is based on an idea which does not differ in any essential from the idea which underlies all of the collateral reading in English which we require our pupils to do. Its advantages are obvious enough. It would set every passage read in its proper historical environment. It would make constant progress toward an unvarying goal possible. It would render easy the imparting of a great deal of sorely needed instruction in Roman mythology, history, and sociology. Finally and chiefly, it would make the work intensely interesting from first to last.

Under such a system every student would learn the language in order to get the authors; he would not, as too many now do, read the authors to get the language.

22. "The Influence of Classical Learning on English Literature in the Earlier Period, especially as illustrated by Layamon's Brut," by Miss Mary L. Miner, of the Detroit High School.

The writer found the influence of Latin only apparently greater than that of Greek, and accounted for this by the fact that the British Isles came under the sway of the Romans. She traced this influence under the Saxons, Danes and Norman-French, and then made a comparison between the *Æneid* and Layamon's *Brut*.

As Vergil's *Æneas* sails from Troy in twenty ships, so does Layamon's, and from the son of Ascanius and a niece of Lavinia is born Brut, the ancestor of the Britains. The accidental killing of his father causes him to flee to Greece, where he frees the Trojans from slavery, marries the daughter of the Grecian king, as Helenus marries Andromache, and sets sail with sixteen times twenty ships and four more. Two days and nights they are buffeted by the storms, as *Æneas* was for three, and on first landing they satisfy their hunger by killing deer, which seem to have been as numerous as *Æneas* found them on the coast of Africa. They discover on the desert island a temple to Diana, which reminds us of the one Dido was building in honor of Juno. As *Æneas* consults the oracle of Apollo on the Island of Delos, so Brut finds the proper sacrifices made in the proper way will induce Diana to reveal his destination. He sleeps before the altar on a deer's hide, as Latinus when he consults the oracle of Faunus, and she reveals Albion, the land beyond the west, his Hesperia, "a winsome land by a narrow sea surrounded," says Layamon, which suggests Helenus's warning to *Æneas* about Scylla and Charybdis. As Jupiter quiets the fears of Cytherea in regard to the Romans, so Diana comforts him by telling him that his descendants shall rule the world and he is very ready to vow a temple to her, as Anchises warns *Æneas* to do for Juno. After sailing three times ten days and nights, they near the Pillars of Hercules and fall into the hands of the mermen, half woman and half fish, which may well be the descendants of the harpies which torment *Æneas* so on the Strophades. As Antenor after the Trojan war led a band to Italy, by Layamon's day he has taken

them to Spain, and this four-fold host, under their leader Corinius, accompanies Brut on the rest of his voyage. The names coined remind one forcibly of those given to the contestants in the boat race of the fifth book and many an aristocratic Britain of Layamon's day, doubtless, was proud to trace his origin to them. When they reached the mouth of the Loire, they lie at anchor for seven nights and a day, one for each of *Æneas*'s seven years' of wandering. Brut's friend, Turnus, is killed in a foraging party, and it is the desire to avenge his death, as Achilles that of Patroclus, which leads to a war that detains the Trojans a little time. Their landing on the coast of Cornwall is celebrated by holding a feast, as *Æneas* on the Strophades. They are attacked by giants like the Cyclops whose clubs are great trees. Their Polyphemus, Geomagog, returns after the first defeat with twenty others and all are slain except himself. He is conquered in a wrestling match in which you can hear the bones crash as in that between Dares and Entellus. Locsine, one of the sons of Brut, was betrothed to Gwendoleine, the daughter of Corineus, but falls in love with a Hunnish maiden. The prospect of civil war leads him to remove Gwendoleine to a new city he builds for her, New Troy or London, as Ascanius builds Alba Longa. A succeeding king builds a temple to Minerva in which fire is always kept as in that of Vesta. After three times thirty winters have passed in the reign of Cunedagius, Romulus and Remus found Rome. The same year the British Trojans conquer France and go to Rome to avenge the slaying of Remus, and this was the cause of Caesar's invasion of Britain.

EVENING SESSION

This was the closing session. Professor Gudeman presided, calling to order at eight o'clock. The hall was crowded.

The committee appointed to consider the subject of preparation to teach Latin and Greek brought in the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted :

Resolved, That this conference desires to express its sense of the importance of a thorough training for teachers in all grades of classical instruction. Especially does it urge adequate preparation for the work of secondary education. The instructor should know much more than he is called upon to impart to his pupils in the high school. The ideal teacher of the classics will be one who has not only specialized in these branches as undergraduate and graduate, but who also, by instinct and training, possesses the enthusiasm to add constantly to past attainment by new study.

A committee selected a year ago at the meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club to discuss the subject of classical publication, with especial reference to the question: "Do the interests of American classical scholarship demand the estab-

lishment of a new Journal?" was announced as ready to report. In view of the importance of the subject, and the desirability of having fuller time for the discussion of the matter than was available, it was thought best to refer this report to the meeting of the American Philological Association, at Cleveland, next July. Professor S. B. Platner, of Adelbert College, extended a cordial invitation to the classical teachers present to come to Cleveland, and suggested that the papers for the reading of which there had not been time, should be offered to the Secretary of the Philological Association for the July meeting.

The "Committee on Question Box" found many questions to answer, which, however, there was no opportunity to discuss publicly.

The address of the evening, on "The Classics in Modern Education," by Professor Paul Shorey, of the University of Chicago, was a brilliant effort; it was received with great enthusiasm.*

Following the address Professor M. L. D'Ooge, of the University of Michigan, gave a brief account of the Hymn to Apollo recently discovered at Delphi, with a translation.

Among the most remarkable archaeological discoveries of the past year are the fragments of Greek hymns found by the French in their explorations at Delphi, the seat of the ancient oracle of Apollo. These musical compositions were engraved on slabs of marble, and belong to the third century, B. C.

The hymn to Apollo is the longest and most interesting of these musical remains. It is inscribed on two marble slabs that belonged to a building called the Treasury of the Athenians, which was erected as a repository for archives and native offerings shortly after the battle of Marathon. The hymn celebrates Apollo as the god of prophecy, and the muses of Mt. Helicon as his companions, and closes with a vivid description of sacrificial rites and musical performances on the part of the representatives of Athens who come to the Delphic shrine. What gives especial interest to this discovery are these two facts: first, it is the longest and best preserved piece of ancient Greek music that has ever been found; secondly, the words are accompanied by a musical notation so complete as to afford us a better knowledge of Greek music than we have been able to gain thus far from any other source. A portion of the hymn is written in the chromatic scale,

*Owing to pressure of other work Professor Shorey has not yet been able to prepare this address for publication.

the very existence of which in ancient Greek has until now been called in question. The melody has been harmonized in modern style. The hymn was sung for the first time last summer in Paris.

The hymn was then magnificently rendered by Professor Gardner S. Lamson, of the University School of Music, with a simple accompaniment on a reed organ by Mr. John J. McClellan. It is not too much to say that the power and musical effects of the hymn as sung were as much of a revelation to those who had studied it as to those who had not. The conference passed a vote of thanks to Professor Lamson for his kind effort. Several other votes of thanks were proposed and carried, among them one to the newspapers of Detroit and Chicago, especially the Detroit *Tribune* and the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, for their full reports of the Conference.

After adjournment many of the members of the Conference went to the new Waterman Gymnasium, which was illuminated. A large number left on the night trains; others stayed over to attend the sessions of the Schoolmasters' Club, which took place on Friday and Saturday, March 29 and 30, and were devoted to the Natural Sciences and Mathematics.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES

ON "ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL FOR CLASSICAL TEACHING" AND ON "THE HIGH SCHOOL CLASSICAL LIBRARY"

The two committees on "Illustrative Material" and on "The High School Classical Library" were appointed at the March meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club in 1894.* Both committees, but particularly the latter, devoted an immense amount of time and labor to their reports; the extent and exacting character of the work involved in compiling the "List of Books" in particular will be appreciated by those who have ever undertaken anything of the kind. Owing to the limitations of space, the preliminary matter of both reports is necessarily given in condensed form.

COMMITTEE ON ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL.†

*See *SCHOOL REVIEW* for June, 1894, p. 376; *Educational Review* for June, 1894, p. 39.

†See p. 354.

The Report of this Committee was presented by the Chairman, Professor Joseph H. Drake.* He discussed the place and proper uses of illustrative material in secondary classical instruction, and gave lists of the best maps, plates, and illustrative objects that are available for school use.

What place may the use of illustrative material properly have in the High School in connection with work in the classics and ancient history?

First, negatively, it should never become the main thing; it should not be made a "fad" or "hobby." Good teachers never forget that the first object of early classical teaching is *to make the boy know Latin and know Greek*. It is easy enough to spend pleasant hours looking at pictures, but it is not the classical teacher's chief aim to "make Latin easy." If Latin could be made as easy of acquisition as some other languages, it would be of no more value as a pedagogical instrument than they. This close, hard drill, this training that holds the boy or girl to the essential elements of Latin and Greek, can never be dispensed with, and should not, in the earlier years, be in any degree *replaced* by attention to the more objective and attractive side of classical study.

On the other hand, the legitimate use of illustrative matter, though of necessity supplementary, is none the less essential to the best instruction. All concede that History cannot be intelligently studied without the constant use of maps. That the teacher should give to the student concrete and accurate rather than vague conceptions, in all fields of study, is insisted on by modern pedagogy. No branches lend themselves more readily to objective presentation than those comprised in the group of classical studies. The ancient languages and ancient life are illuminated by ancient art, and by the countless common objects which the spade of the excavator has brought to light. An appeal to the eye is the quickest method of solving a difficulty, providing the difficulty is such as to admit of objective solution.

The earliest Latin and Greek read present words and phrases which call up no image, or only an incorrect one, in the mind of the learner. A representation of the object or ceremony or building alluded to not only lends a new interest to the word or the subject, but lays the foundation of exact knowledge. In such cases the "tonic value" and the "pedagogical value" of the use of illustrative matter are equally great.

It is the duty of the teacher, then, not only to have clear and definite conceptions, himself, of the concrete aspects of that which he teaches, but to be able to make his resources available in giving to his students exact rath-

*The other members of the Committee are: Professor Martin L. D'Ooge, of the University of Michigan; Superintendent E. C. Thompson, of Saginaw; Principal R. S. Garwood, of the Marshall High School, and Miss Mary L. Miner, of the Detroit High School. The Committee expressed its obligations to Professor Harold North Fowler, of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, for valuable suggestions; to Messrs. Rand, McNally & Co., of Chicago, for furnishing a complete display of the Kiepert maps at the Conference; and to Messrs. W. A. Olmstead & Co., of Chicago, for a similar display of the Johnston maps.

er than indefinite ideas. It is not enough for the learner to *look* ; he must also be taught to *see*. The danger of the careless or haphazard use of illustrative matter is great; it is very easy to fix gross errors in the student's mind. The general rule may be stated that *no teacher should use with his class illustrative material which he does not himself understand in all its details*. He should be as much a master of that which he brings forward to throw light on a passage as of the passage itself. An object of ancient art or life is as capable of interpretation as a portion of text. To present illustrations merely "to illustrate" without being able at the same time to show exactly *how* and *why*, without sufficient knowledge of the details to give a precise account of the significant points in them, will cultivate superficiality of observation on the part of the class, and sooner or later reveal to them a source of weakness in the teacher. Exact description by the teacher, or by the student under his direction, is the *sine qua non* of the proper use of illustrative material.

With reference to the occasions when illustrative material can be used to advantage, and the extent to which it may profitably be introduced, no rules can be laid down. The well-trained teacher, *the teacher who knows*, will enrich and strengthen his teaching continually by this means, making it conducive alike to more accurate and to broader scholarship. Certain kinds of illustrative material are also admirably suited for display on the walls of the class-room, lending an attractive appearance and surrounding the life of the student with an atmosphere of ancient art. In Michigan within the past few years many schools have aroused public interest in the classics by presenting figures dressed in Greek and Roman costumes at exhibitions, either with dialogue parts or in tableaux. Inspiration of incalculable service to the work of the teacher may be easily enough aroused if one goes about the matter in the right way. The ways in which illustrative material may be used, will become evident from an enumeration of the kinds that are available. These are: Illustrations in Books, Wall-Maps, Wall-Pictures, Photographs and Slides, Casts, and Miscellaneous Objects.*

1. *Illustrations in Books.*

Most American text-books for the study of the classics in secondary schools are freely illustrated; many of them are so well provided with illustrations that the teacher who knows how to use them needs few other resources for the daily work of the class. For many kinds of objects carefully made chromo-lithograph plates, in which differences of material are indicated by conventional coloring, have as great a superiority over wood-cuts as these have over "process" plates, which often distort the proportions and fail to

* The question of means for the purchase of illustrative material will suggest itself at once. The committee have given much consideration to this aspect of the subject; they are of the opinion that no teacher who is in earnest about the securing of the matter recommended will fail to obtain the means, for the reason that the things to be asked for will appeal at once to the eye and to the judgment of all interested. Collections of books and illustrative material are the laboratory equipment of the classical teacher. In many instances money is obtained in part from the funds of the school, in part from the proceeds of exhibitions and entertainments.

convey a correct impression. The cheaper "process" plates (in which some text-books abound) are particularly faulty in representations of full-length figures, or groups, and large buildings. Often when quite attractive at first glance they will be found worthless for study. It is quite possible that in our classical text-books there is, as some claim, at present a tendency to over-illustration; certainly a good deal of complaint is heard about their expensiveness. It would not be surprising if within a few years economic considerations should cause a tendency to set in the opposite direction.

While illustrated text-books may be in the possession of the class, there are certain books of illustrations with descriptive text which *every high school should possess*, and which should be in constant use. These are, first, Schreiber's "Atlas of Classical Antiquities;"* next (and not for Greek students alone), the Englemann-Anderson "Pictorial Atlas to Homer's Iliad and Odyssey." Then, Hülsen's *Forum Romanum*, whose two plates and three small plans are the best thing of the sort ever made. Von Falke's "Greece and Rome" contains a number of well-drawn restorations and imaginary scenes from ancient life. The pictures in Duruy's "History of Rome" are among the most attractive published. The teacher who can read German will find Baumeister's "Denkmäler" of great service. Of the other illustrated books and books of illustrations given in the "List" it is not necessary to speak in detail.

2. Wall-Maps.

Students should be encouraged to provide themselves with Kiepert's "Atlas Antiquus," which for school and college use is by all odds the best classical atlas ever made. *Every school should possess* a set of wall-maps of Ancient History. Kiepert's are the best; we give here a list of them with prices:†

	Cloth Back, Common Rollers.	In "Diamond Case."
Ancient World (for the periods preceding the Roman Empire), size 74 x 40 inches, . . .	\$7.00	\$10.00
Roman Empire, size 75 x 57 inches, . . .	8.00	11.00
Ancient Greece, size 79 x 60 inches, . . .	8.00	11.00
Ancient Asia Minor, size 78 x 39 inches, . . .	7.00	10.00
Ancient Gaul and Germany, size 69 x 55 inches, . . .	8.00	11.00
Ancient Italy, size 53 x 62 inches, . . .	7.00	10.00
Ancient Latium, with the environs of Rome, size 57 x 42 inches, . . .	6.00	9.00
Empires of the Persians and of Alexander the Great, size 79 x 39 inches, . . .	7.00	10.00

Every school should have also

Otto Richter's colored map of the Forum Romanum; size
58 x 32 inches.‡

* For this and other books cited, consult the "List of Books recommended for a High School Classical Library."

† These are the prices quoted by Messrs. Rand, McNally & Co., of Chicago, in their catalogue; *they offer a discount of 30 per cent. from the list price for schools.* The same terms are offered also by Messrs. B. Westermann & Co., New York.

‡ This is offered by Messrs. Rand, McNally & Co., mounted on rollers, at \$4.00 net.

3. *Wall-Pictures.*

The committee recommends to all schools selections from two series of wall-pictures, which are easily procured, effective for display, and very valuable for teaching purposes.

a. Series of wall pictures designed under the direction of Prof. E. von der Launitz, and published by Theodor Fischer, Cassel.

Out of those thus far published (32 numbers) we give only the plates best adapted for high school use. New plates are occasionally added to this series, and the older ones are now and then replaced by new. Explanatory leaflets, in German, are furnished without extra charge; but if there should be a sufficient demand for English descriptive matter no doubt this would be provided for English-speaking purchasers.

Grammatical Instruction (XVII.), size 44 x 30 inches, . . .	\$3.30*
Musical Instruments—stringed (XIII.), size 44 x 30 inches, . . .	3.30
Musical Instruments—wind (XIV.), size 44 x 30 inches, . . .	3.30
Ground Plan of the Acropolis of Athens (XIX.), size 45 x 32 inches, . . .	5.50
Acropolis of Athens, <i>Reconstruction</i> (XXIV.), size 45 x 32 inches, . . .	8.80
Olympia, <i>Reconstruction</i> (XXIII.),	5.90
Greek Hoplite (VIII.), size 17 x 60 inches,	4.25
Roman dressed in Toga (XI.), size 44 x 30 inches,	5.50
Roman Lady (XX.), size 40 x 28½ inches,	2.20
Barbarian (X.), size 44 x 30,	3.60
Roman Centurion (IX. a), size 44 x 30 inches,	5.50
Roman Legionary (IX. c), size 44 x 30 inches,	5.50
Roman Forum, <i>Reconstruction</i> (XXIX.),	8.80
House of the Tragic Poet, Pompeii, Ground Plan, Perspective View and Front View, 3 plates (XXVIII. a, b, c),	11.00

b. Pictorial Illustrations of History and Art, published under the direction of Prof. J. Langl, Vienna.

These are chromo-lithograph plates, in sepia-style, mounted on pasteboard and varnished ready for hanging.† The size is 29 x 22 inches. The following are particularly recommended; the price (B. Westermann & Co.) is \$2.00 per plate:

Choragic Monument of Lysicrates.
Ruins of Palmyra.
Theatre at Taormina, with Aetna in the distance.
Forum of Pompeii, with Vesuvius in the distance.
The Via Appia.
The Pantheon (exterior).
The Mausoleum of Hadrian.
Interior of the House of the Tragic Poet at Pompeii.

c. A third series of wall-pictures is being published at St. Petersburg, under the title: *Tabulae quibus antiquitates Graecae et Romanae illustrantur. Edidit Stephanus Cybulski.* They are in many respects worthy of commendation, though open to the criticism of being too highly colored.‡

* The prices are those quoted by Messrs. B. Westermann & Co., 812 Broadway, New York, for the wall-pictures mounted on rollers and varnished ready for hanging.

† Before hanging it is better to strengthen the pasteboard against warping by tacking it upon a plain frame of wood, so fitted at the back that it cannot be seen from the front

‡ A list of them, with prices, will be furnished by Messrs. B. Westermann & Co.

4. *Photographs and Slides.*

Good photographs of objects of ancient art and life are now so easily obtained and so inexpensive that they must have an increasingly important place among the appliances of classical instruction. A special committee devoted much time last summer to selecting from the large collection belonging to the classical department of the University of Michigan, a set of 100 photographs that could be recommended to high schools.* These were on exhibition at the Conference. It has been impossible for the Committee to prepare a descriptive catalogue of these photographs, without which they would be of little use; possibly if there should be a sufficient demand for the collection, a list of the photographs with descriptive notices will be given in a future number of the *SCHOOL REVIEW*.†

No author lends himself more readily to interesting and profitable illustration than Vergil. The following list of views, arranged to illustrate the first six books of the *Æneid* in the order of the narrative, was very kindly furnished by Mr. I. B. Burgess, of the Morgan Park Academy, Illinois. The numbers at the right are those under which the views are given in Soule's Catalogue. Specific references are added in cases where they seemed necessary or helpful.

INTRODUCTORY

Virgil (Raphael),	938
Virgil, Horace and Varius at the house of Maecenas (Jalabert), supplement,	1301
Paris (sculpture, Vatican),	2272
Judgment of Paris (Pompeian Fresco); (See <i>Æneid</i> I. 23-33 and	
Howell's "Italian Journeys," Chap. VIII., pp. 99-102),	5128
Juno Ludovisi (sculpture, Rome), head,	2295
Juno (sculpture, Vatican), full length,	2260

*The Committee consisted of Principal B. F. Buck, of the Austin (Illinois) High School; Principal R. S. Garwood, of the Marshall High School; Superintendent W. H. Honey, formerly of Monroe; Miss Mary L. Miner of the Detroit High School; Mr. John A. Peters, of the Decatur (Illinois) High School, and Principal E. C. Warriner, of the Battle Creek High School.

†Photographs of Greek subjects, furnished at cost with the approval of the Archaeological Institute of America, may be obtained by addressing Professor B. Perrin, Farnum Hall, New Haven, Conn. The best photographs of Rome (views, ruins, sculpture,) are those of the Anderson collection; a catalogue of them will be sent on application to the *Libreria Spithoever, Piazza di Spagna, Rome, Italy*. The best size (about 8x10 inches,) are sold, unmounted, at 8 frs. per dozen. A similar catalogue of the photographs of Naples, Pompeii and other cities of Italy (price, same size, 6 frs. per dozen) will be sent on application to *Sommer e Figlio, Largo Vittoria, Naples, Italy*. Large photographs can be obtained of the same firms. Photographs of the size mentioned, for school use, should be mounted on "Ex. No. 1 light buff" photograph card, size 13x16 inches, of the sort furnished by the A. M. Collins Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia. This card stands the test of constant use better than any other. Slides can be readily made from any photograph, or clear illustration in a book, at a cost not to exceed fifty cents apiece.

A large collection of photographs of objects of ancient art in the collections of the British Museum is issued by Messrs. W. A. Mansell & Co., 271 and 273 Oxford St., London, W.

An extensive list of engravings of the ruins of Rome (price from 3 francs up,) is given in the *catalogo generale dei rami al bulino e all' acqua forte*, sent on application to the *Regia Calcografia di Roma*, 6, Via della Stamperia, Rome, Italy.

Minerva (bust), <i>Aeneid</i> II. 616,	2411
Minerva Bellica (full length, sculpture),	2212
Venus of the Capitol (head, sculpture),	2218
Venus de Milo (half length, sculpture),	2432
Jupiter Ortricoli (head, sculpture),	2262
Abduction of Helen (Deutsch),	7075
Helen of Troy (Sir Fredk. Leighton),	7636
Hector and Andromache (Thorwaldsen), <i>Iliad</i> , Bk. VI.,	2610
Parting of Hector and Andromache; (Maignan), <i>Æ. III.</i> , 300-43, 481-91.	7685
*Hector (Canova, full length, sculpture),	2591
Hector's Body Dragged at the Car of Achilles (Flaxman), <i>Iliad</i> , XXII.; <i>Æ. II.</i> , 270-79,	9677
Funeral of Hector; <i>Iliad</i> XXIV.,	9679
Automedon and the Horses of Achilles (Regnault), <i>Iliad</i> XVII: <i>Æ. II.</i> , 476, 477,	sup. 1468
Tomb of Agamemnon. (See "Schliemann's Excavations," Schuchhardt's), McIntosh B. & O. Co., Greece, 73.	2613
Greeks and Trojans fighting over the body of Patroclus, <i>Iliad</i> XVII.,	sup. 3433
BOOK I	
Dido building Carthage (Turner),	8382
Cupid and Venus (Thorwaldsen),	8065
Cupid (Guido Reni),	sup. 2902
Cupid resting on his bow (Bouguereau),	8508
Love Triumphant (G. F. Watts),	2263
BOOK II	
Laocoön (sculpture, Vatican),	8022
Burning of Borgo (Raphael),	2157
BOOK III	
Map of the Mediterranean, McIntosh B. & O. Co.	6651
The Fates (Angelo), <i>Æ. III.</i> 7 and <i>passim</i> ,	sup. 1534
The Fates (Thumann),	5195
Greek Temple (of Concordia in Sicily). <i>Aeneid</i> III., 84 and <i>passim</i> ,	2346
Bronze Tripod, <i>Æ. III.</i> , 92,	2157
Stone Altar,	9684
Blinding of Polyphemus (fresco in an Etruscan tomb); <i>Æ. III.</i> , 628-38 and <i>Odyssey</i> , Bk. IX.,	7311
BOOK IV	
Æneas at the court of Dido,	2232
Apollo Belvedere (full length sculpture), <i>Æ. IV.</i> , 143-150,	2233
Apollo Belvedere (head),	7365
Cliffs of Delphi, McIntosh B. & O. Co.,	2418
Diana of Versailles (sculpture, Louvre), <i>Æ. I.</i> , 494-502,	2572
Flying Mercury of bronze (Bologna), <i>Æ. IV.</i> , 279-278,	7310
Aurora (Guercino); <i>Ae. IV.</i> , 584, 585 and <i>passim</i> ,	8059
BOOK V. (ATHLETICS)	
Farnese Hercules, <i>Æ. V.</i> , 410-14,	2361
Athlete, found at Rome in 1885; Lanciani's "Ancient Rome," pp. 303-4,	sup. 271

* Most of the views above may be obtained of the Soule Photographic Co., 338 Washington street, Boston, or 208 Wabash Ave., Chicago, either as *photographs* or as *lantern slides*. The few so marked may be obtained as *lantern slides* of the McIntosh Battery and Optical Co., 521 Wabash Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

Runners, boxers and wrestlers (Panathenaic vase),	9693
Boxers, No. 1 (Canova, Vatican),	2583
Boxers, No. 2 (Canova, Vatican),	2584
The Pugilists (Relief, Lateran Museum),	2224

BOOK VI

Map of Italy, McIntosh B. & O. Co.	
Cumaean Sibyl (Guido Reni),	1147
Cumaean Sibyl (Elihu Vedder),	sup. 1559
Cumaean Sibyl (Angelo),	6657
The Golden Bough (Turner),	8381
Charon and Psyche (Neide),	7864
Dante and Virgil (Delacroix),	sup. 234
A Roman clad in a Toga (statue of Tiberius in the Louvre), <i>Æ.</i>	
VI., 847-53; I., 282.	
Julius Caesar (head, British Museum); <i>Æ.</i> VI., 826-35, . . .	2442
Augustus Caesar (full length, Vatican), <i>Æ.</i> VI., 791-807, . . .	2239
Appian Way in time of Augustus; Lanciani, p. 267, . . .	6848
Ancient Italy (Turner),	8377

5. Casts.

In view of the amount and importance of the other material selected, the committee thought it best to make no specific recommendations with reference to the selection of casts at present.*

6. Miscellaneous Objects.

Albert Müller's "Roman soldiers" showing the equipment and armor of the Roman army in the Imperial Period. These comprise fourteen figures in block tin, between two and three inches high, carefully designed and colored; they are manufactured at the establishment of Ernst du Bois, Hannover. A descriptive pamphlet of 32 small pages, in German, is furnished with each set. This pamphlet has been translated into English, under the direction of the Committee, and will be printed and furnished at cost if there shall be a sufficient demand for it.†

COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL CLASSICAL LIBRARY

The "List of Books recommended for a High School Classical Library" which it has been found impossible to issue as a supplement to this number of the SCHOOL REVIEW, has been published separately, and will be sent on application to the Chairman of the Committee.‡ Following we give the explanatory comments of the committee, prepared by the chairman, Mr. Clarence L. Meader, Instructor in Latin in the University of Michigan.

* Among the best catalogues of casts are: *Catalogue des Moulages*, to be secured by remitting 2 frs. to *M. le Secrétaire, Ecole des Beaux-arts, Paris, France*; *catalogue of Reproductions from Ancient Marbles, Bronzes, etc., in the British Museum*, sent on application to Mr. G. Glass (B. Bruckiani), 40 Russell St., Covent Garden, London; *Verzeichniss der in der Formerei der Königlichen Museum (zu Berlin) Käuflichen Gipsabgüsse*, to be obtained by remitting ½ M. to the Weidmannische Buchhandlung, Berlin, Germany.

†Messrs. B. Westermann & Co., 812 Broadway, New York, offer the "Roman Soldiers" at \$3.00 per set, including of course the German pamphlet.

‡Address Mr. C. L. Meader, 9 East University Avenue, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The chief aim that has directed the Committee in the choice of titles has been to provide a reliable repository of facts, to put into the hands of teacher and student a working library that will give them material and stimulus to do more thorough-going, more exact, and more independent work. American scholarship is coming daily to realize more and more fully that the most valuable results of the study of the classics are to be attained only by the continual and intelligent use of original sources of information. The help afforded, in running down facts and constructions, by such a work as Meusel's "Lexicon Caesarianum," for example, may have a great influence in raising the quality of class-room instruction; and Kühner's, "Lateinische Grammatik" is valuable as a thesaurus of citations even to those who read very little German. The committee, however, has not wished to emphasize unduly the so-called microscopic method of classical study. It stands rather for a broad and intelligent interpretation of ancient literature and life from a humanistic point of view. But that teacher is alone fitted to be an interpreter of the Greek and Roman civilizations whose first-hand acquaintance with the sources of information is not only exact, but reasonably full. The man who will carefully read Cicero's correspondence will get more light on the orator's character and the trend of the times than from a score of monographs on those subjects.

A second motive has not had less weight in bringing the Committee to a decision to include a comparatively full list of editions of the more important Greek and Roman authors. It has aimed to encourage the reading of classical authors on the part of teachers, and the brighter students, in their entirety. In our high schools Greek and Latin masterpieces are read only in selections. The pupil's direct acquaintance even with the *Æneid* is often limited to nine books and sometimes to six. The fragmentary study of any literary masterpiece can only be deprecated, while the large results flowing from the reading of such a production in its entirety are such as always to repay the intelligent student for his time and efforts. With editions of the classical authors at hand, both teacher and learner will be stimulated to do work outside the necessarily narrow range of the class-room preparation.

In suggesting editions of classical authors, the Committee has recommended reliable editions with English introduction and commentary, as far as these are available for the most important authors; for authors of less importance it has usually endeavored to find a mean between expense and excellence by suggesting the Teubner and Weidmann texts, as these are, with few exceptions, both trustworthy and cheap.

It will not be disputed that the high school library should be well supplied with atlases, lexicons, and other books of reference, with political histories, histories of Greek and Latin literature, works on archaeology and art, and handbooks covering other fields of classical philology. These accordingly are quoted in considerable numbers. In the selection of titles the Committee has approved to the best of its judgment the most trustworthy books under each specific topic, giving the preference in all cases to books written in the English language, and citing titles of

works in foreign languages only where no reliable works in English are available, or where those written in foreign languages have an exceptionally high value. Examples of German works of this class are Iwan Müller's "Handbuch der klassischen Alterthumswissenschaft," Hübner's "Bibliographie der klassischen Alterthumswissenschaft," Boeckh's "Encyclopædie und Methodologie der philologischen Wissenschaften," and Roscher's "Ausführliches Lexikon der griechischen und roemischen Mythologie." In some fields of the classics thoroughly reliable works in English do not exist, and in these cases the Committee has been constrained to admit books of a decidedly inferior quality. It has endeavored, however, in all cases to suggest the best available.

As the interest of the pupil may often be best stimulated by books that present the life and thoughts of classical antiquity in an entertaining form, there have been included in the list, in somewhat sparing numbers, popular books for young people, as certain of Putnams' "Stories of the Nations" series and the "Epochs of Ancient History" series; and there has been appended to the bibliography a list of literary works, mostly historical novels, that illustrate the life and thought of the ancient civilizations or provide a pleasing narration of Greek and Roman tales.

In the preparation of the list, the Committee has realized that the pupil's needs can often best be met by supplying those of the teacher, and by placing him in a position to improve the quality of his instruction. The list accordingly comprises some volumes which the ordinary student would probably not consult, but which for various reasons find their appropriate place in the library of the school and not in that of the teacher. In taking this course the Committee has aimed to provide the teacher with adequate sources of detailed information, while it has generally avoided choosing books of a decidedly technical character.

A conspicuous characteristic of the bibliography is the absence of beginners' books, selections for unseen translation, manuals of prose composition, and the like. Such books are all of a more or less ephemeral character. The classics require a new interpretation for every generation; our methods of instruction need continual readjustment, and just at present they are in an especially fluctuating condition. Consequently the books which reflect so clearly an ephemeral stage in an educational movement, should scarcely find a permanent place in a high school library.

The number of titles included in the list is 480, a number the immediate acquisition of which is probably not within the resources of many of the smaller American high schools. The best interests of the classics, however, demand that a library at least as large as that here sketched out should be found in all of our high schools. Indeed, the very centre and core of every institution of learning is its library; by the extent and character of this the effectiveness of its instruction is largely determined. Such a library is at least as important, for the interests of the school as a whole, as any laboratory. As all schools, however, cannot provide themselves at once with the complete list, it has been thought advisable to indicate the relative desirability of the volumes by placing the double or single asterisk before the

titles of the more essential ones. Those preceded by a double asterisk are absolutely indispensable,—without them the best work is impossible. Those preceded by a single asterisk *may* be dispensed with, though they are highly desirable. The remainder are for the most part supplementary to the others, and their character can best be learned by consultation of the list. So many variable considerations of desirability, expense, and usefulness for high school work, must be weighed in determining the selection or rejection of titles, that the line of demarcation between the second and third classes must necessarily be somewhat indefinite. No serious teacher of the classics, who diligently sets about securing this library for his school, will fail if he exercises sufficient energy, persistency, and discretion. In five years at most his school will have all that is here recommended.

It was the original intention of the Committee to append to each title a few lines descriptive of its contents and character. Desirable as the carrying out of this intention would be, it was found impracticable to provide for the publication of so large a pamphlet as it would necessitate. Any information of this kind will gladly be supplied on application to the Chairman of the Committee.

The details of edition, size, date, price and publishing firm have been taken from the volumes themselves, the English and American Catalogues, English and American Trade Lists, the German "Verlagskatalog" and Hinrich's "Verzeichniss." As the publishing houses whose books are quoted have kindly verified these details, the Committee has reason to believe that the pamphlet is reasonably free from error.

In conclusion the Committee desires to call attention to the list of acknowledgments on the reverse of the title-page of the "list of books recommended," and to express its gratitude for the generous assistance of its friends who have been kind enough to send suggestions and criticisms from all parts of the country.